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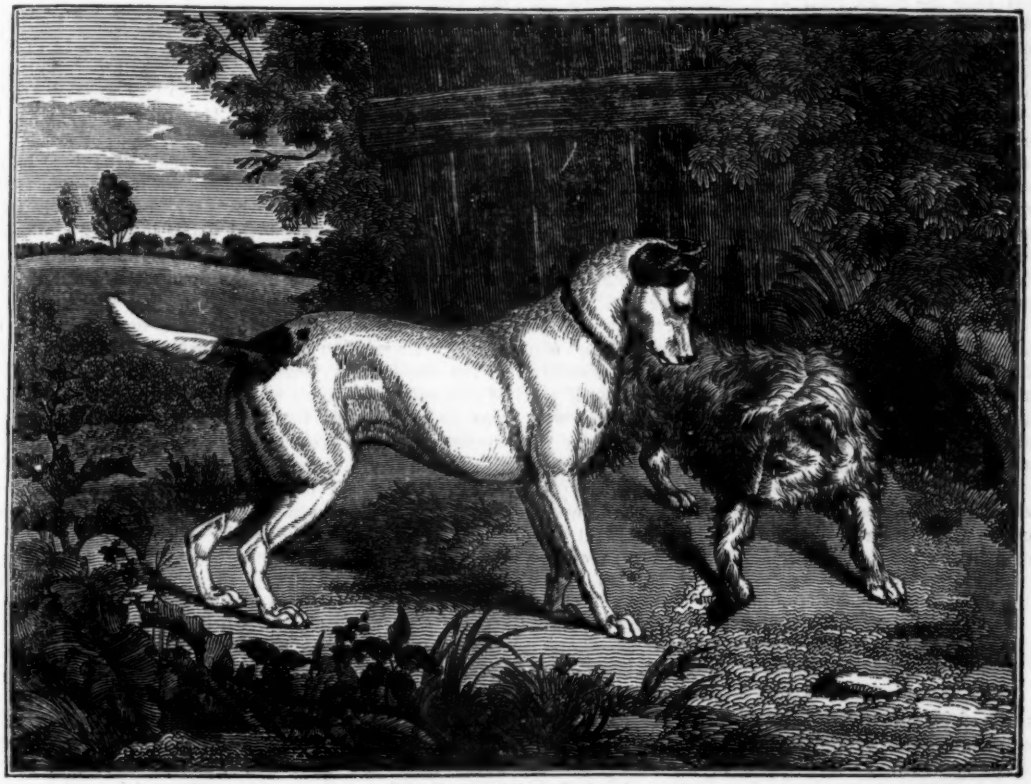
THE TERRIER.



[English and Scotch Terriers.]

THE name of this species of dog seems to be derived from the peculiar avidity which it exhibits in the pursuit of all animals that burrow. There are two kinds of terriers, the rough-haired Scotch and the smooth English: the former is certainly the purest in point of breed, and the latter appears to have been produced by a cross from him.

The Scotch terrier is rather low in stature, rarely exceeding more than twelve or fourteen inches in height, with a strong, muscular body, and short and stout legs. The ears are small and half-pricked; the head rather large in proportion to the size of the body, and the muzzle considerably pointed. This species is generally of a black or sand colour. The English terrier is a handsome, sprightly dog, and generally black on the back, sides, upper part of the head, neck, and tail; the belly and throat are of a very bright reddish-brown, with a spot of the same colour over each eye. The hair is short and somewhat glossy, the tail rather truncated, and carried slightly upwards; the ears are small, somewhat erect, and turned back at the tips; the head is small in proportion to the size of the body, and the snout is moderately elongated. The English terrier varies considerably in size and strength, and is to be met with from ten to eighteen inches in height.

Both species are so similar in their habits and powers, that they may be described without minute discrimination.

The smell of the terrier is exceedingly acute; and, from its expertness in forcing foxes and other game out of their coverts, it is an indispensable attendant on every pack of hounds: in this employment, from its greater lightness and length of leg, the English terrier is better able than the Scotch to keep up with the pack. It is of considerable service to man from its great hostility to rats, polecats, mice, and other such animals. The extraordinary power of the terrier in the destruction of rats was strikingly shown in the exhibition of the "Dog Billy," who is said to have killed a hundred in five minutes. Even the badger, though a formidable quadruped, it encounters with great courage, and not often without success, though it seldom fails to suffer severely in such engagements. To the fox as well as the badger it is an implacable enemy, and pursues every kind of game secreted in subterraneous retreats with more ardour than any other dog. The huntsmen are very particular in their selection of terriers for a fox-hunting establishment: their size is not so much regarded as their strength and spirit. The black and black-tanned, or rough, wire-haired pied, are generally preferred. White in a terrier is said to indicate impurity of breed; and those inclining to a reddish colour are also considered objectionable by sportsmen.

The following anecdotes, the first relating to the Scotch, and the other to the English, terrier, are taken from Brown's 'Anecdotes of Dogs.'—"At Dunrobin castle, in Sutherlandshire, the seat of the Marchioness of Stafford, there was, in May 1820, to be seen a terrier

bitch nursing a brood of ducklings. She had had a litter of whelps a few weeks before, which were taken from her and drowned. The unfortunate mother was quite disconsolate till she perceived the brood of ducklings, which she immediately seized and carried to her lair, where she retained them, following them out and in with the greatest attention, and nursing them after her own fashion with the most affectionate anxiety. When the ducklings, following their natural instinct, went into the water, their foster-mother exhibited the utmost alarm; and as soon as they returned to land, she snatched them up in her mouth and ran home with them. What adds to the singularity of the circumstance is, that the same animal, when deprived of a litter of puppies the year following, seized two cock chickens, which she reared with the like care she bestowed on her own family. When the young cocks began to try their voices, their foster-mother was as much annoyed as she formerly seemed to be by the swimming of the ducklings, and never failed to repress their attempts at crowing."

The following anecdote, related by Mr. Blaine, is a pleasing proof of canine sagacity, and occurred in the parish of Marylebone, London:—"A servant had carelessly left a child, four years old, alone, whose cap caught fire from a candle with which she was amusing herself. A small terrier, observing the situation of the child, ran up stairs to the room where the servant was, and barked most vehemently, nor would he cease till she came down, by which assistance was obtained. Had it not been for the intelligence of the dog, the poor child, instead of being only slightly scorched, would most probably have lost its life; for the accident happened in the kitchen, and the domestic left in charge of it had gone to the very top of the house, out of the reach even of the cries of the infant."

THE OBELISK OF LUXOR.

[Concluded from No. 120.]

IN the first volume of the 'British Museum,' which contains some brief notices on Egyptian antiquities, the reader will find a description of obelisks generally, together with their history, and a particular account of those of Luxor. The latter account, and a view of the said obelisks, and part of the magnificent temple of Luxor, before which they stood, have also been given in No. 14 of the 'Penny Magazine.' Referring our readers, then, to that description and that engraving, we need only add on the present occasion that it was the smaller of the two obelisks the French had to remove. But this smaller column of hard, heavy granite was 72 French feet high, and was calculated to weigh upwards of 240 tons*. It stood, moreover, at the distance of about 1200 feet from the Nile, and the intervening space presented many difficulties.

M. Lebas, the engineer, commenced by making an inclined plane, extending from the base of the obelisk to the edge of the river. This work occupied nearly all the French sailors and about 700 Arabs during three months, for they were obliged to cut through two hills of ancient remains and rubbish, to demolish half of the poor villages which lay in their way, and to beat, equalize, and render firm, the uneven, loose, and crumbling soil. This done, the engineer proceeded to make the ship ready for the reception of the obelisk. The vessel had been left aground by the periodical fall of the waters of the Nile, and matters had been so managed that she lay imbedded in the sand, with her figure-head pointing directly towards the temple and the granite column. The engineer, taking care not to touch the keel, sawed off a transverse and complete section of the front of the ship;—in short, he cut away her bows, which were raised, and kept suspended above the place they properly occupied by means of pulleys and some strong spars, which crossed each other above the vessel.

The ship, thus opened, presented in front a large mouth to receive its cargo, which was to reach the very lip of that mouth or opening, by sliding down the inclined plane. When this section of the ship was effected, they took care that she should lie equally on her keel; and where the sand or mud was weak, or had fallen away from the vessel, they supplied proper supports and props to prevent the great weight of the column from breaking her back. The preparations for bringing the obelisk safely down to the ground lasted from the 11th of July to the 31st of October, when it was laid horizontally on its side.

The rose-coloured granite of Syene (the material of these remarkable works of ancient art), though exceedingly hard, is rather brittle. By coming in contact with other substances, and by being impelled along the inclined plane, the beautiful hieroglyphics sculptured on its surface might have been defaced, and the obelisk might have suffered other injuries. To prevent these, M. Lebas encased it, from its summit to its base, in strong thick wooden sheathings, which were well secured to the column by means of hoops. The western face of this covering, which was that upon which the obelisk was to slide down the inclined plane, was rendered smooth, and was well rubbed with grease to make it run the easier.

The mechanical contrivance to lower the column, which was by far the most critical part of these operations, is described as having been very simple. A cable of immense strength was attached to a strong anchor deeply sunk in the earth, and well secured at some distance from the monument. This cable was carried forward and made fast to the top of the obelisk, and then descending in an acute angle in the rear of the obelisk, the cable was retained in an opposite direction to the anchor by means of an enormous beam of wood, and by a series of pulleys and capstans. The column had been perfectly cleared from the sand and earth round its base, and walls of a certain height erected to keep it in the proper line of descent. Other works at its base prevented the column from sliding backwards in its descent, and a strong bed made of oak, and immediately connected with the inclined plane, was ready to receive it, and pass it to the plane when it reached a certain low angle of declination.

To move so lofty and narrow an object from its centre of gravity was no difficult task;—but then came the moment of intense anxiety! The whole of the enormous weight bore upon the cable, the cordage, and machinery, which quivered and cracked in all their parts. Their tenacity, however, was equal to the strain, and so ingeniously were the mechanical powers applied, that eight men in the rear of the descending column were sufficient to accelerate or retard its descent. For two minutes the obelisk was suspended at an angle of 30°,—but, finally, it sank majestically and in perfect safety to the bed of the inclined plane.

On the following day the much less difficult task of getting the obelisk on board the ship was performed. It only occupied an hour and a half to drag the column down the inclined plane, and (through the open mouth in front) into the hold of the vessel. The section of the suspended bows was then lowered to the proper place, and readjusted and secured as firmly as ever by the carpenters and other workmen. So nicely was this important part of the ship sliced off, and then put to again, that the mutilation was scarcely perceptible.

The obelisk, as we have seen, was embarked on the 1st of November, 1831, but it was not until the 18th of August, 1832, that the annual rise of the Nile

* According to M. Angelin, the other obelisk is three French feet higher.

afforded sufficient water to float their long-stranded ship. At last, however, to their infinite joy, they were ordered to prepare everything for the voyage homewards. As soon as this was done, sixty Arabs were engaged to assist in getting them down the river (a distance of 180 leagues), and the Louxor set sail.

After thirty-six days of painful navigation, but without meeting with any serious accident, they reached Rosetta; and there they were obliged to stop, because the sand-bank off that mouth of the Nile had accumulated to such a degree, that, with its present cargo, the vessel could not clear it. Fortunately, however, on the 30th of December, a violent hurricane dissipated part of this sand-bank; and, on the 1st of January, 1833, at ten o'clock in the morning, the Louxor shot safely out of the Nile, and at nine o'clock on the following morning came to a secure anchorage in the old harbour of Alexandria.

Here they awaited the return of the fine season for navigating the Mediterranean; and the Sphynx (a French man-of-war) taking the Louxor in tow, they sailed from Alexandria on the 1st of April. On the 2nd, a storm commenced, which kept the Louxor in imminent danger for two whole days. On the 6th, this storm abated; but the wind continued contrary, and soon announced a fresh tempest. They had just time to run for shelter into the bay of Marmara when the storm became more furious than ever.

On the 13th of April they again weighed anchor, and shaped their course for Malta; but a violent contrary wind drove them back as far as the Greek island of Milo, where they were detained two days. Sailing, however, on the 17th, they reached Navarino on the 18th, and the port of Corfu, where, they say, they were kindly received by Lord Nugent and the British, on the 23d of April. Between Corfu and Cape Spartivento, heavy seas and high winds caused the Louxor to labour and strain exceedingly. As soon, however, as they reached the coast of Italy, the sea became calm, and a light breeze carried them forward, at the rate of four knots an hour, to Toulon, where they anchored during the evening of the 11th of May.

They had now reached the port whence they had departed, but their voyage was not yet finished. There is no carriage by water, or by any other commodious means, for so heavy and cumbrous a mass as an Egyptian obelisk, from Toulon to Paris (a distance of above 450 miles). To meet this difficulty they must descend the rest of the Mediterranean, pass nearly the whole of the southern coast of France, and all the south of Spain—sail through the Straits of Gibraltar, and traverse part of the Atlantic, as far as the mouth of the Seine, which river affords a communication between the French capital and the ocean.

Accordingly, on the 22d of June, they sailed from Toulon, the Louxor being again taken in tow by the Sphynx man-of-war; and, after experiencing some stormy weather, finally reached Cherbourg on the 5th of August, 1833. The whole distance performed in this voyage was upwards of fourteen hundred leagues.

As the royal family of France was expected at Cherbourg by the 31st of August, the authorities detained the Louxor there. On the 2d of September, King Louis Philippe paid a visit to the vessel, and warmly expressed his satisfaction to the officers and crew. He was the first to inform M. Verninac, the commander, that he was promoted to the rank of captain of a sloop-of-war. On the following day, the king distributed decorations of the legion of honour to the officers, and entertained them at dinner.

The Louxor, again towed by the Sphynx, left Cherbourg on the 12th of September, and safely reached Havre de Grace, at the mouth of the Seine. Here her old companion, the Sphynx, which drew too much water to be able to ascend the river, left her, and she was taken in tow by the Héva steam-boat. To conclude with the words of our author: "At six o'clock (on the 13th) our vessel left the sea for ever, and entered the Seine. By noon we had cleared all the banks and impediments of the lower part of the river; and, on the 14th of September, at noon, we arrived at Rouen, where the Louxor was made fast before the quay d'Harcourt. Here we must remain until the autumnal rains raise the waters of the Seine, and permit us to transport to Paris this pyramid,—the object of our expedition." This event has since happened, and the recent French papers announced that the Louxor would be shortly received into a cradle constructed for its reception.

On some future occasion we will give an account of the landing and erecting the Egyptian column at Paris.

BEAUVAIS.

Beauvais is a city of France, the capital of the department of the Oise, situated upon the Thérain, in a valley surrounded by woody hills. The site of Beauvais was occupied, in very remote times, by a city, which is mentioned in the 'Commentaries of Cæsar' by the name of Cæsaro-magus, and which it afterwards dropped for that of Bellovacum, derived from a Belgian people, the Bellovaci, by whom it was inhabited. It was ravaged by the Normans in the year 850, and at other periods; and few cities have experienced more calamities and frequent fires than Beauvais. The town still exults in the glory of having sustained two very formidable sieges without being taken. The first of these was in the year 1443, when the English were repulsed by the devoted heroism of Jean Signière; the second was in 1472, when Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, unsuccessfully besieged it with 80,000 men. On this occasion, the females of Beauvais, headed by Jane Hachette, joined the garrison and fought with uncommon intrepidity. This heroine herself, on one occasion, seized the flag which the enemy were about to plant on the walls, and threw from the rampart the soldier by whom it was carried. The assailants were obliged to withdraw. Until the revolution, this event was annually commemorated, on the 10th of July, by a procession, in which the women marched first.

The cathedral church of Beauvais, the south front of which is represented in our engraving, is the principal architectural ornament of the town. The building was commenced in the year 1391. It is particularly noted for its choir, which is regarded as a master-piece of Gothic architecture, being as much admired for its height and breadth as for the lightness of the work and the fine arrangement of the vault and its outworks. It has ten pillars on each side of its length, with chapels all around. The pavement of the sanctuary, which is very large, is all of marble. This magnificent building seems never to have been finished. The nave is incomplete, and there are neither towers nor apparent belfries. The church possesses, nevertheless, some great bells, which are placed in a separate building, about fifteen paces from the front entrance. Near the cathedral there are four small collegiate churches which are distinguished as "the four daughters of St. Peter," to which saint the cathedral is dedicated. Our wood-cut represents the South Front of the Cathedral. It can only be viewed from a very narrow street; but its magnificent dimensions, and its elaborate ornaments, afford a remarkable specimen of the ecclesiastical architecture of France.

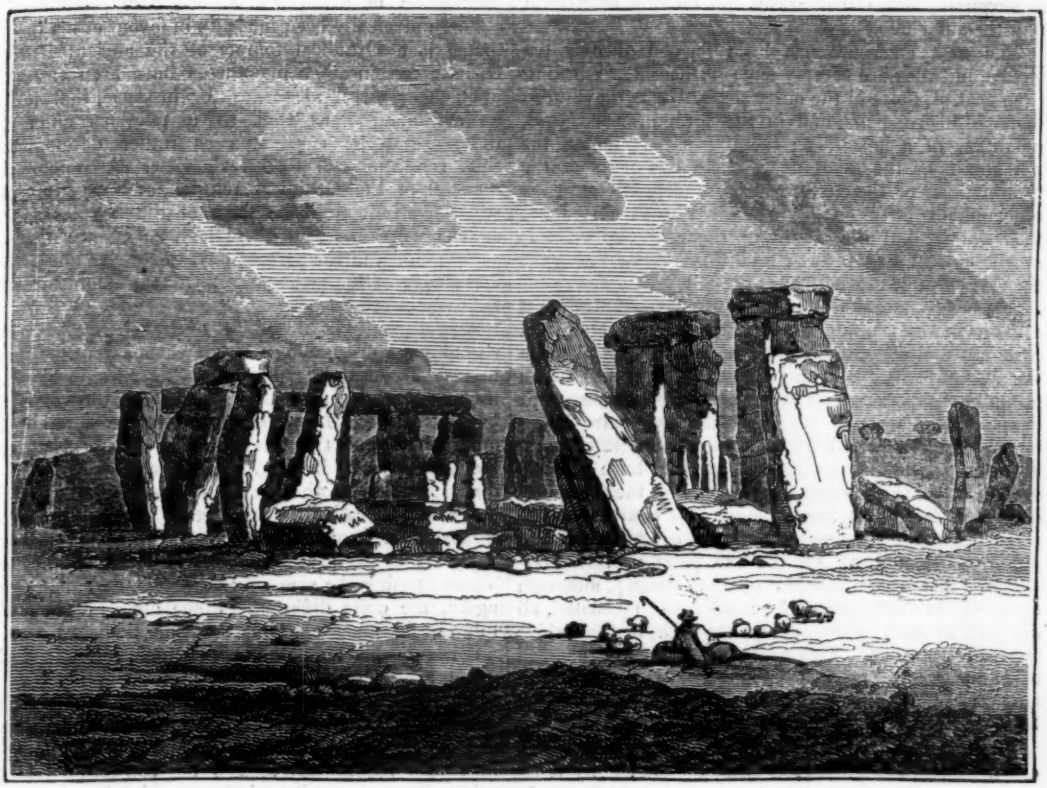
Besides the cathedral, there are few buildings at Beauvais that claim particular notice. The Town-hall is a fine edifice, and contains a picture representing the heroic action of Jane Hachette. There is one large

hospital, a communal college, a public library containing 6000 volumes, a cabinet of natural history, and a hall for exhibitions. The place possesses some considerable manufactures, principally of rich tapestries, serges, and woollen cloth, which give it a respectable trade. The population is 12,800.

The situation of Beauvais is not unpleasant, but the town, on the whole, does not present an agreeable aspect. The houses are built chiefly of wood, a circumstance which accounts for the frequent fires to which we alluded. The streets are sufficiently wide, and the ramparts afford pleasant and shady promenades.

[South Front of the Cathedral of Beauvais.]

STONEHENGE.



[Remains of Stonehenge.]

STONEHENGE is the most remarkable ancient monument now remaining in this island; nor indeed is there known anywhere to exist so stupendous an erection of the same character. Even in its present half-ruined state, the venerable pile retains a majesty that strikes, at the first glance, both the most refined and the rudest eye: and the admiration of the beholder grows and expands as a more distinct conception of the original plan of the structure gradually unfolds itself from amidst the irregular and confused mixture of the standing and the fallen portions which for a short time perplexes the contemplation. It is then felt to be the produce, not only of great power and skill, but of a grand idea.

The situation is a highly commanding one. Stonehenge stands at a short distance north-west from the town of Amesbury, on the brow of one of those broad and gentle elevations which in many places slightly undulate the vast level of Salisbury Plain. The turnpike-road from Amesbury to Shrewton, running in a north-west direction, passes close by it. It rises on the traveller's left as he proceeds from Amesbury, and is approached by a short avenue, marked by the traces of a ditch on each side. The direction of this avenue is from north-east to south-west, and it has been crossed obliquely by the turnpike-road. It appears to have formed the only entrance to the enclosure in which the building stands, which is formed by a circular ditch, three hundred and sixty-nine yards in circumference, and having a slight rampart on the inner side. It has been supposed that, besides this, there were two other entrances: but both Dr. Stukeley and Sir Richard Colt Hoare, whose descriptions of Stonehenge are the fullest and most careful that have been published, and between whom there is a perfect agreement in all material points, are decidedly of opinion that these breaks in the ditch have been made in modern times, probably to allow the passage of the carts, by which so many of the stones have been carried away.

The building stands in the centre of this circular area. An outer circle of enormous upright blocks, having others placed upon them, as the lintel of a door is placed upon the side-posts, so as to form a kind of architrave, has enclosed a space of a hundred feet in diameter. The upright stones in this circle had been originally thirty in number, but only seventeen of them are now standing. The portion of the circle facing the north-east is still tolerably entire; and the doorway at the termination of the avenue may be said to be in perfect preservation. It consists of two upright stones, each thirteen feet in height, and between six and seven in breadth, with a third block placed over them, of about twelve feet in length, and two feet eight inches in depth. The space between the two posts is five feet, which is rather a wider interval than occurs between any two of the other pillars. Throughout the circle the broad side of the stone is placed in the line of the circumference, so that there must have been more of wall than of open space in the proportion of about six and a half to five. The imposts are fixed upon the uprights throughout by the contrivance called a tenon and mortise; the ends of the uprights being hewn into tenons or projections, and corresponding hollows being excavated in the imposts. They are oval or egg-shaped. Of course there are two tenons on each upright, and two mortises in each of the imposts, which are of the same number with the uprights. The principal workmanship must have been bestowed upon these fittings: for although the marks of the hewer's tool are visible upon the other parts of the stones, their surface has been left, upon the whole, rude and irregular. They are made to taper a little towards the top; but even in this respect they are not uniform.

Within this great circle is another, formed by stones not only much smaller, but also much ruder in their outline. Of these there had originally been forty, but only twenty of them can now be traced. This circle

has never had any imposts: it is about eighty-four feet in diameter, and, consequently, the interval between it and the outer circle is eight feet.

The next enclosure has been formed of only ten stones, but they are of very majestic height, exceeding even that of those in the outer circle. They have been disposed in five pairs, and in the form of a half oval, or rather of a horseshoe; the upper part facing the north-east, or the great door. The two pairs at the terminations of the curve, which are distant from each other about forty feet, are each sixteen feet three inches high; but the height of the next two pairs is seventeen feet two inches; and that of the last pair, the station of which had been directly facing the opening, was twenty-one feet and a half. A striking effect must have been produced by this ascending elevation. A variety and a lightness must have also been given to the structure by the arrangement of the stones here; not at equal distances, as in the two exterior rows, but in pairs, the interval between each two pairs being much greater than that between the two stones composing each pair. The uprights of this row have imposts over them, as in the outer circle. One of these imposts is sixteen feet three inches long. Of course the imposts here, not forming a continuous architrave, are only five in number. Of the five pairs, or rather *trilithons* (that is, combinations of three stones), although some of the shafts have been injured and mutilated, all are still in their places, except the fifth, or that which faced the entrance. This trilithon fell down on the 3rd of January, 1797, and the stones now encumber a flat stone, of about fifteen feet in length, which lay at their base.

Lastly, there appears to have been a fourth enclosure, formed originally, as Stukeley thinks, by nineteen stones, but only eleven now remain, entire or in fragments. These seem also to have been arranged in the shape of a half oval, with the open part, as in the case of the other, to the north-east. Although greatly inferior in height to those last described, they are still taller than those of the second circle. The most perfect, according to Sir R. C. Hoare, is seven and a half feet high, and twenty-three inches wide at the base, and twelve at the top. Like the second circle, this row has never had any imposts.

Such is Stonehenge, as it still subsists; and in so far as the original design of the fabric can be traced from the portions of it which the waste of time has left, the appropriateness of the name, Stonehenge, which is Saxon, and signifies "the Hanging Stones," will be obvious enough from the account that has been given. But little doubt can be entertained that it is not a Saxon building. It is unquestionably the work of an age long preceding that in which the Saxons first obtained a footing in this island. Inigo Jones, in a posthumous work, has actually maintained the theory that it is a Roman erection—a temple of the god Cœlus, he conceives. A more absurd notion never was taken up. It would be much more rational to say that it was a work of nature;—a piece of architecture which had grown up where it stands, like the Giant's Causeway, or the Cave at Staffa. Stonehenge certainly resembles these structures quite as much as it does any thing the Romans have left us. The old popular tradition, recorded by Giraldus Cambrensis and other chroniclers, was, that the stones had been brought to the place where they now are, and elevated into the air as we see them, by the great magician Merlin, from the Curragh of Kildare in Ireland. It is not impossible that the design may have been taken from a similar building on that great plain, where Giraldus Cambrensis says, that an erection like Stonehenge was actually to be seen in his day. He calls Stonehenge, Chorea Gigantium, the Giants' Dance. Among modern speculators, some, also, have attributed it to the Danes; but, since the publication of Stukeley's book (1740), opinion has almost universally been made up in favour of his theory, that it is a Druidical temple of the ancient Britons. Of late, certain other hypotheses have been engrafted upon this general idea:—as, for instance, that it had an astronomical as well as a religious aim; but these are to be considered as rather developments than refutations of Stukeley's view. Astronomy was the soul of the Druidical religion, and may very possibly have influenced the form of the temples as well as the worship. But there is little chance that we shall be able, in the present day, to recover any correct knowledge of the principles of this astronomical architecture.

One difficulty in the subject of Stonehenge has given rise to much discussion;—From whence were the stones brought? According to Sir R. C. Hoare, in his magnificent work entitled the 'Ancient History of South Wiltshire,' (fol. Lon. 1812) the stones forming the outer circle and the fine trilithons of the grand oval are of the same kind with those which are found in different parts of the surface of the Wiltshire Downs, and are there called Sarsen Stones, by which are meant stones taken from the native quarry in their rude state. They are a fine-grained species of silicious sandstone. Those forming the smaller circle, and the smaller oval again, are quite different. Some are an aggregate of quartz, feldspar, chlorite, and hornblende; one is a silicious schist; others are hornstone, intermixed with small specks of feldspar and pyrites. What is called the altar, being the stone now covered by the central trilithon of the grand oval, is a micaceous fine-grained sandstone. From these circumstances, Mr. Cunnington first very ingeniously started the conjecture that the original temple had probably consisted only of the great circle and the great oval, and that the two other rows were subsequent additions. In a late publication, entitled 'Hermes Britannicus,' (1828,) the Rev. W. L. Bowles has taken up this idea, but has given it a new form, by supposing the lower stones to have formed the original temple, and the taller to have been afterwards added. He has connected this view with some very curious speculations as to the religion of the ancient inhabitants of Britain; for which, however, we must refer the reader to his work.

Our wood-cut represents Stonehenge as seen from the south.

PROFESSIONS AND TRADES OF THE METROPOLIS.

THE table given in No. 118 of the 'Penny Magazine' distinguished the employments in which about 45,400 establishments are engaged. Those were employments connected with the larger objects of production and the more important professions. The present list adds 7000 to this amount; and there are about 2300 engaged in 218 employments which our limits have not allowed us to include in either list. Thus a total is obtained of about 54,700 establishments, considered "respectable" by the compilers of the lists we have employed.

Since the preceding list went to press, we have been informed that there are not less than 800 "artists" practising in the metropolis; but the discrepancy may be accounted for by the fact, that a large proportion of artists prefer the light and air of the suburbs to the close streets. Generally, we would be understood as claiming no more for the tables than that they exhibit approximations, and afford materials for comparison.

Anatomical Mechanists	3
Anchorsmiths and Chain-cable manufacturers	21
Animal Preservers	4
Archery Warehouses	11

Army Clothiers (20), and (16) Cap and Accoutrement Makers	36
Artificial Eye (3), and Limb Makers	9
Artists in Fireworks	9
Aurists	4
Ball and Rout Furnishers	3
Basket Makers	54
Bellows Makers	10
Birmingham and Sheffield Warehouses	44
Blacking Manufacturers	25
Black-lead Pencil Manufacturers	18
Blind (window) Makers	98
Brace and Belt Makers	16
Brass and Copper Manufacturers	157
Breeches Makers	33
Button Manufacturers and Warehouses	33
Calico-Glazers (6), and Calico and Furniture Printers	39
Cap Makers, (fur, cloth. and leather)	16
Card Makers	15
Carmen	70
Carpet and Rug Manufacturers and Warehouses	109
Chair and Sofa Manufacturers	89
Chasers	30
Child-bed Linen Warehouses	63
Clothiers and Clothes Salesmen	110
Colour Manufacturers and Dealers (exclusive of those who are Oilmen also)	79
Comb Makers	39
Composition Ornament Manufacturers	18
Cork Manufacturers	52
Cuppers	38
Curriers, Leather Cutters, &c.	459
Dressing Case and Desk Makers	64
Drysalters	58
Egg Merchants	25
Engine Makers, (Fire 5, Steam 2, Hydraulic 1)	8
Farriers	95
Feather Manufacturers (11 Bed)	84
Filter Manufacturers	7
Fishing Rod and Tackle Manufacturers	24
Flatting Mills	7
Floor Cloth Manufacturers	33
French Horn and Trumpet Manufacturers	10
Fringe, Bedlace, Trimming, &c., Manufacturers	92
Furriers	151
Gilders (Water and Book-edge)	30
Ginger Beer (13), Soda and Mineral Water Manufacturers (20)	33
Glass Manufacturers, Warehouses, and Cutters	174
Globe Makers	4
Glovers	76
Gold Cutters, Gold and Silver Beaters, Refiners, &c.	117
Granary Keepers	9
Gunpowder Makers	9
Hair Manufacturers	57
Ham and Tongue Dealers	66
Harness Makers	46
Harp Makers	12
Herbalists	21
Importers (of Beads 5, Carpets 1, Cigars 15, Cocoa-nuts 2, Foreign Clocks and Watches 4, Foreign Fancy Goods 27, Foreign Silk Goods 15, Geneva Watch Tools and Materials 2, Glass Shades 1, Leeches 5, Mineral Waters 1, Shawls 1, Tobacco-pipes and Snuff-boxes 2, Toys 7, Wines 23)	111
Lamp Manufactories and Warehouses	78
Lapidaries	30
Last, Boot-tree, and Patten Makers	59
Lead Manufacturers	25
Lightermen	99
Locksmiths and Bell-hangers	83
Looking-glass and Picture Frame Makers	32
Mangle and Press Makers	14
Map and Chart Publishers and Sellers	19
Marine Stores, and Rag and Phial Dealers	73
Mast, Oar and Block Makers	45
Medallists	3
Millers	17
Mineralogists	2
Modellers	11
Needle and Pin Makers	32
Oculists	3
Outfitting and Ready-made Linen Warehouses	63
Paper Makers	9
Paper Marblers and Fancy Paper Makers	21
Paviors	12
Percussion Cap Manufacturers	2
Perfumers	84
Pewterers	55
Plaster of Paris Manufacturers	6
Plate (British) Manufacturers	3
Potato Dealers	181
Potters	14
Printing Press Makers	5
Print-sellers and Publishers	62
Pump Makers	11
Roman Cement Manufacturers	23
Rope, Line and Twine Manufacturers	70
Sail and Sail Cloth Makers and Warehouses	84
Saw Mills	14
Scagliola Manufacturers	5
Scale Makers	40
Ship Breakers 9, Carvers 6, Chandlers 40, Hearth and Tank Makers 4, Joiners 8, Owners 30, Smiths 11	108
Short-hand Writers	15
Slop-sellers	83
Soap Manufacturers	40
Spectacle Makers	16
Statuaries and Masons	161
Steam-engine Boiler Manufacturers	8
Sugar Refiners	68
Surgeons' Instrument Makers	54
Tanners	50
Timber and Deal Yards	21
Tin-plate Workers	204
Tool Makers and Warehouses	100
Toymen	134
Tripemen	37
Trunk Makers	93
Truss Makers	33
Turners	170
Umbrella and Parasol Makers	109
Varnish Manufacturers	31
Veterinary Surgeons	55
Violin and Violincello Makers	15
Warehouses (16 French)	137
Wharfingers	90
Wheelwrights	155
Whip Makers	33
Wig Makers	9
Wire Drawers, Workers, &c.	79
Wool Staplers	21
Worsted Manufacturers	20
Zinc Workers	7

AUSCULTATION*.

From the earliest ages physicians have known that disease in the cavity of the chest might occasionally be detected by the ear; but it was not till about seventy years ago that any express rules were laid down upon this subject. The merit of being the first methodical auscultator is due to Dr. Avenbrugger, a physician of Vienna, who published a short treatise on this subject in the year 1761. It is written in Latin, and is entitled, 'A New Discovery of the Art of Detecting Diseases in the Interior of the Chest by Percussion.' When the chest of the patient is struck by the fingers of the physician, if it is healthy, it gives a sound, says Dr. Avenbrugger, like that of a drum covered with cloth; whereas, if it is diseased, the sound produced is as if solid flesh had been struck.

In performing this examination, the chest of the patient must be covered with his shirt, or else the fingers of the physician with a glove, which must not be made of glossy leather; for if the bare chest is struck with the bare hand, the concussion of smooth surfaces produces an external sound which obscures the internal one. The following eight general rules are clear, correct, and well-expressed:—

1. The duller the sound is over the chest, and the nearer it approaches the sound of solid flesh, the greater is the disease.

2. The larger the space over which this dulness extends, the greater is the disease.

* This word signifies listening; but, in medicine, means the art of distinguishing diseases by the sense of hearing.

3. It is worse for the left side to be affected than the right.

4. It is less dangerous that the front and upper part of the chest (viz., from the collar-bone to the fourth rib) should be destitute of sound than the lower part.

5. It is more dangerous that the sound be absent in the posterior part of the thorax than in the front and upper part.

[This rule is evidently the same as the last, in different words.]

6. If one side of the chest is entirely destitute of sound, it is a fatal sign.

7. If the sternum (viz., the front and central part of the chest) is without sound, it is a fatal sign.

8. If the place which the heart occupies gives the sound of solid flesh over a great space, it is a fatal sign.

The reason of the last rule is this:—the heart, from its solidity, produces a loss of resonance over the space which it occupies; and, therefore, a great extension of this dulness shows a great enlargement of the heart,—an incurable disease.

When there is fluid in the chest there will be a loss of resonance; just as there is when the lungs, having lost their natural spongy texture, have become solid,—a disease which Avenbrugger calls *schirrus* of the lungs; but which is now termed *hepatization*, from *hepar*, the Greek word for liver. Percussion, however, will almost always succeed in determining whether the loss of sound is produced by the presence of a fluid or by hepatization; for, in the former case, the patient, by altering his attitude, will change the position of the fluid, and thus transfer the dulness of sound from one spot to another; but this ingenious method of discriminating the nature of the disease will, of course, fail in those rare cases in which one side of the chest is entirely filled with fluid.

Dr. Avenbrugger's little manual is not confined solely to the signs afforded by percussion; in many instances he gives a succinct but masterly outline of the general symptoms by which various diseases of the chest may be recognized. In offering his work, the fruit of seven years' observation, to physicians, he remarks, that, in treating diseases of the chest, the sound obtained by percussion is inferior in importance only to the pulse and respiration. Avenbrugger's work has never been translated into English; but there is a French version of it by Corvisart, in which the brief axioms of the German physician are illustrated, and almost overwhelmed, by a most copious commentary. This translation, however, is a valuable work, and an additional step in the art of auscultation. With this exception, but little advance seems to have been made from Avenbrugger to Laennec, the distinguished inventor of the stethoscope. This is a tube, usually made of wood, one end of which is applied to the chest of the patient, and the other to the ear of the physician. By this contrivance, the sound of the patient's respiration, as well as voice, is transmitted in the most distinct manner, and the minutest variations from the healthy standard can be distinguished by a practised ear. In children, for instance, the sound produced by respiration is louder and more acute than in adults; but this acute breathing often occurs in grown-up persons, when, one lung being diseased, the other is forced to do work for both. It is known among stethoscopists by the name of *puerile* respiration. Or, let us suppose a patient in an advanced stage of consumption, in whose lungs cavities have been formed by the suppuration of tubercles; if the stethoscope be applied to the chest of such a patient when he is speaking, his voice will be heard echoing from the cavities in his lungs: this morbid resonance is called *pectoriloquy*. Such are a few of the more intereresting points depending on auscultation, a subject on which large volumes not only might be, but have been, written. In comparing the methods of Avenbrugger and Laennec, we must acknowledge that, if percussion is more simple, the stethoscope affords more information; but then this advantage is perhaps counterbalanced by the extreme difficulty of its application; a difficulty so great as not always to be surmounted by years of study. It is for this cause that we have touched but slightly on the use of the stethoscope, or chest-viewer, as we thought it needless to perplex general readers with refined distinctions which harass the scientific, and even left Laennec himself sometimes at fault.

We touch upon subjects of this nature principally to show by what slow steps the knowledge of diseases has advanced,—what slight symptoms indicate healthy or deranged functions,—how delicate are the tests which they present, even to the most practised physician,—and how contemptible, therefore, are those pretensions which would make the medical science consist in a few empirical rules, applied with little observation, and less philosophy.

Persecution of the Jews.—Among the details of wrong and outrage, by which the study of history is frequently rendered painful, few are more revolting than the massacres and persecutions of the Jews by the Anglo-Norman kings. Besides the more general and shocking transactions of this character which historians record, many old documents exhibit evidences of local persecution which are as curious as they are revolting. In illustration may be quoted the order issued, in 1255, by Henry III. to the sheriff of Norfolk and Suffolk, who is commanded "to cause proclamation to be made in the city of Norwich, and in all the good towns of those counties, that no Christian woman shall henceforth serve the Jews, to nurse their young children, or in any other office." Thirty-five years after, all the Jews in England, to the number of 15,000, were expelled the country, and all their real estates confiscated, by a resolution extorted from the parliament by the clamours of the people

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Frugal Fare of the Swedish Peasants, and their Affection for their Horses.—"While changing horses, we were not a little entertained at the curious group formed by the peasants and their steeds breakfasting together; both cordially partaking of a large, hard, rye-cake. This is their constant food on the road; and, indeed, throughout Sweden it forms the chief, and frequently the only, subsistence of the peasantry. Before setting out on a journey, a few of these cakes are strung together, which serve for the support of themselves and their horses. As the latter may sometimes belong to three or even four proprietors, it is highly amusing, on the road, to observe the frequent altercations between them, each endeavouring to spare his own horse; and, while running by the side of your carriage, using his utmost endeavours to persuade the driver that it is an animal of such qualities as not to have the least occasion for the whip; at the same time, perhaps, giving him a hint, that, from what he knows of his neighbour's beast, the lash would be well applied there. The curious scenes that in consequence arise form not the least entertaining part of the journey. Their affection for their horses is so great, that I have actually seen them shed tears when they have been driven beyond their strength. Indeed, the expedition with which these little animals proceed is surprising when we consider the smallness of their size, which hardly exceeds that of a pony. Seven or eight miles within the hour are accomplished by them with ease; and the roads throughout Sweden being universally good, they frequently do not relax from a gallop until they have reached the post-house."—*Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke's Travels in Sweden, &c.*

*** The Office of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge is at 59, Lincoln's Inn Fields.

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